

## FUNCTIONAL ASSEMBLAGES OF BIRDS IN HETEROGENEOUS LANDSCAPES ALONG AN URBAN-RURAL GRADIENT IN TIRUCHIRAPPALLI, INDIA

MANJULA MENON<sup>1,2</sup>, PRASHANTHI DEVI<sup>1,3</sup> AND R. MOHANRAJ<sup>1,4</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Department of Environmental Management, School of Environmental Sciences, Bharathidasan University, Trichy 620 024, Tamil Nadu, India.

<sup>2</sup>Email: manj.mn@gmail.com

<sup>3</sup>Email: prashanthidevi@gmail.com

<sup>4</sup>Email: mohan.bdu@gmail.com

As a result of urbanisation, landscapes and land use patterns are changing the world over. This extreme form of land use alteration has affected species composition and abundance, moulding a few species to dominate the urban environment and a few others to extinction. Urbanisation occurs at different scales and the community composition of species gets affected accordingly. In this paper, we look into species richness and abundance of birds, and their variation along an urban-rural gradient at Tiruchirappalli, India. In Tiruchirappalli, bird species diversity increases from more to less urbanised centres. Though diversity is less in urban areas, the abundance of species occupying these areas is higher. During this study, the maximum recorded birds were omnivores. The most affected species is the House Sparrow, with a few populations residing in the urban environment. Along the urban-rural gradient, farmlands and wetlands are the most preferred landscapes of birds, and conservation measures need to be oriented in this direction to protect the most vulnerable species. Species diversity in urban areas is significantly contributed to by edge species that occupy the fringes of urban areas. Though urban landscapes are less species rich, they too play a significant role in biodiversity conservation as they are species abundant zones. City planners and urban foresters need to pay more attention towards preserving habitats not only in urban areas but along the urban fringes, as they provide suitable corridors for various activities of birds and their movement.

**Key words:** urbanisation, abundance, richness, homogenization, ecosystem, biodiversity, communities

### INTRODUCTION

Urbanisation often modifies landscapes and land use patterns, leading to changes in the vegetation and altering species composition. Urban ecosystems are characterised by low stability, complex and varied dynamics, abundance of exotic species, and different species composition (Machlis *et al.* 1997). Human domination of ecosystems leads to excessive consumption of resources (Turner *et al.* 1991), alteration of habitats and species composition (McKinney 2002), disruption of hydrological processes (Arnold and Gibbons 1996), and modification of energy flow and nutrient cycles (Grimm *et al.* 2000; Vitousek *et al.* 1997). Humans have modified the carbon cycle (Prentice 2001) to an extent that it has led to the expulsion of large quantities of toxic gases into the atmosphere (Pacyna and Pacyna 2001). Urbanisation drives biotic homogenization (McKinney 2006; McKinney and Lockwood 1999) and it affects the communities found along an urban-rural gradient. When habitat heterogeneity decreases, landscapes often undergo homogenization, and similar species occupy these habitats causing extinction of the endemics (McKinney 2006; Olden 2006).

Studying faunal composition along an urban-rural gradient helps in understanding various ecosystem processes at landscape level. This is a unique area of research. In the

concept of an urban-rural gradient, suburban habitats play a unique role in biodiversity conservation. These habitats can be ideal zones for birds and would contain half of the species found in forested areas if they are less exposed to developmental activities (Blair 2004) and high densities of birds in urban areas (Palomino and Carrascal 2006). Species richness peaks at the intermediate level of urbanisation (Tratalos *et al.* 2007). Some species thrive well in areas of high development, but certain other species are sensitive to various stress factors in the environment and are forced to extinction (Jackson 2006). Some prime factors that affect bird community composition and abundance along an urban-rural gradient include proximity to roads, developmental activities (Brotons and Herrando 2001; Fraterrigo and Wiens 2005; Glennon and Porter 2005), and density of buildings (Fraterrigo and Wiens 2005; Friesen *et al.* 1995). Landscape modification and diversity of habitats for various life forms, makes urban areas a priority area for conservation (Miller and Hobbs 2002).

### MATERIAL AND METHODS

#### Study Area

Tiruchirappalli, one of the southernmost cities of India, is a historical city. With an area of 4,404 sq. km, it is the fourth largest city in Tamil Nadu, located at the geographic

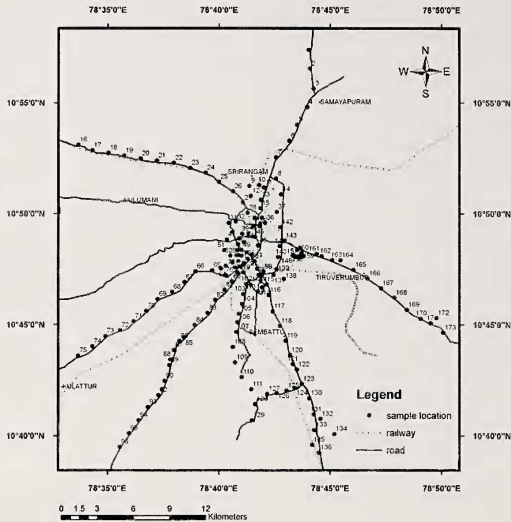


Fig. 1: Sampling points along an urban-rural gradient

centre of the state ( $10^{\circ}$ - $11^{\circ}30'$  N;  $77^{\circ}45'$ - $78^{\circ}50'$  E). The population of the city in 2009 was 829,537. The city lies along the rivers Cauvery and Coleeron, witnessing a high rate of urban agglomeration. It has a number of disconnected hills, among which Pachamalai Hill is the most important, located in the Sengattupatti reserve. The district is agriculturally rich due to its fertile land and perennial rivers. The vegetation is mainly Tropical Dry Deciduous forest and Tropical Thorn forest. The River Cauvery with its numerous distributaries enables extensive paddy cultivation throughout the year. Tiruchirappalli is also among the important industrial cities in Tamil Nadu, with BHEL and HAPP as the major manufacturing units. It is also a major pilgrimage destination with centuries old temples being the major attraction for tourists and a unique habitat for a large number of resident birds. Urbanisation and industrialisation have triggered infrastructure expansion, mushrooming of residential complexes and other commercial developments, leading to large-scale landscape alterations, including changes in seasonal wetlands. These altered landscapes are likely to mould bird species composition and their habitats.

### Methodology

Sampling was carried out from October 2010 to September 2011, through 151 point counts to study the effect of landscape changes on species richness and abundance of birds. Sampling points were selected within the city and along the urban-rural gradient. 80 sampling points were selected in the urban, 17 in the suburban and 54 in the rural matrix. At each point, birds were identified and enumerated within 25 m radius for 10 minutes, by the point count method (Bibby *et al.* 2000). The sampling points were visited from 06:00 to 09:00 hrs every month to record bird abundance and richness. All the sampling points within the urban boundary were at distances of 500 m, while along the urban to rural gradient, they were located at a distance of 800 m to 1 km. The points were marked using GPS on eight different roads diverging from the city covering a total area of 900 sq. km (Fig. 1). Survey was avoided on rainy and windy days. The bird species recorded were divided into six foraging guilds: carnivore, granivore, frugivore, insectivore, omnivore, and nectarivore. To evaluate how habitat fragmentation in the urban areas and along the urban-rural gradient affected species composition, bird

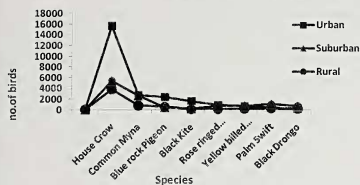


Fig. 2: Species abundance along an urban-rural gradient

community structure and taxonomic composition was studied in various landscapes, like commercial, residential, commercial-residential, agriculture, wastelands, wetlands, and plantations.

### Data Analysis

Shannon Wiener species diversity index (Magurran 2004) was calculated within various urban landscapes along the gradient. Niche breadth was calculated to find out the range of resources utilised along the axis (Morin 1999). Species richness, species abundance (Fig. 2), and species evenness were also calculated for different landscapes. The similarity of bird assemblages occupying different landscapes was quantified by Percent of Similarity given by Bray and Curtis (1957). ANOVA recorded the significant difference in diversity indexes of species occupying different landscapes.

## RESULTS

A total of 140 species, belonging to 59 families, were recorded during the study with a pooled diversity index of  $H' = 0.9$  (Table 1). The diversity index of rural locations was higher followed by suburban and urban (Fig. 3). The results showed significant difference in the diversity indexes of species occupying the urban-rural gradient ( $F = 36.76$ ,  $P = 0.000$ ). Niche breadth did not vary significantly along the gradient ( $F = 1.43$ ,  $P = 0.239$ ). Classification of birds based on their trophic status showed a higher density of omnivores (43%) occupying the urban matrix, followed by carnivores (25%), insectivores (17%), nectarivores (8%),

**Table 1:** Comparison of different indices between urban, suburban, and rural landscapes

Landscapes	Diversity Index	Species Richness	Niche breadth	Species Evenness
Urban	0.82	67	0.22	0.66
Suburban	1.02	85	0.10	0.70
Rural	1.08	137	0.20	0.75

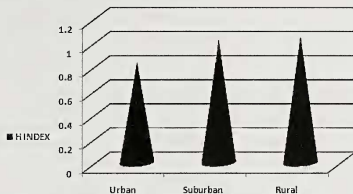


Fig. 3: Diversity index along an urban-rural gradient

granivores (2%), and frugivores (1%). The omnivorous species that were abundant in urban areas were *Milvus migrans*, *Turdoides affinis*, and *Corvus splendens*.

Species richness varied from urban to rural locations, being the highest in the rural matrix (137 species), followed by suburban (85 species), and urban (67 species). The percentage of taxonomic similarity between species occupying the urban and rural landscapes is the lowest at 59%; 72% between urban and suburban; and 63% between suburban and rural.

Along the urban-rural gradient, agricultural landscapes and wetlands are the most preferred habitat for birds, and Eucalyptus plantations are the least preferred. In urban areas, higher abundance of birds was found in locations that had a matrix of residential-commercial land use, rather than purely residential or purely commercial. Agricultural landscapes recorded higher density of insectivores, and wetlands were dominated by Ardeidae species, such as Pond herons (*Ardeola grayii*) and egrets (*Egretta intermedia*, *Egretta garzetta*, and *Bubulcus coromandus*). Diversity index was highest during the southwest monsoon in all landscapes, as seasonal wetlands

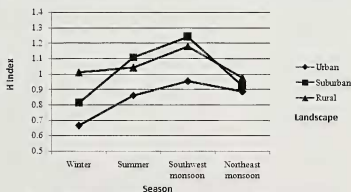


Fig. 4: Scale of diversity among seasons in different landscapes

harbour large numbers of species during the monsoon (Fig. 4). Native tree species *Azadirachta indica*, *Tamarindus indica*, *Ficus benghalensis*, and *Ficus religiosa* were found to harbour a large number of bird species in the urban areas, and shrubs *Prosopis juliflora* and the reed *Typha* provide good habitat

Table 2: List of bird species recorded based on their foraging guild

Species	Family	Foraging Guild	Species	Family	Foraging Guild
<i>Accipiter badius</i>	Accipitridae	Carnivore	<i>Egretta garzetta</i>	Ardeidae	Carnivore
<i>Accipiter nisus</i>	Accipitridae	Carnivore	<i>Elenus caeruleus</i>	Accipitridae	Carnivore
<i>Acridotheres tristis</i>	Sturnidae	Omnivore	<i>Eremopterix griseus</i>	Alaudidae	Carnivore
<i>Acrocephalus agricola</i>	Acrocephalidae	Insectivore	<i>Eudynamis scolopaceus</i>	Cuculidae	Omnivore
<i>Acrocephalus dumetorum</i>	Acrocephalidae	Insectivore	<i>Eudice malabarica</i>	Estrildidae	Granivore
<i>Actitis hypoleucos</i>	Scolopacidae	Carnivore	<i>Francolinus pictus</i>	Phasianidae	Omnivore
<i>Aegithina tiphia</i>	Aegithinidae	Insectivore	<i>Francolinus pondicerianus</i>	Phasianidae	Omnivore
<i>Alauda gulgula</i>	Alaudidae	Omnivore	<i>Fulica atra</i>	Omnivore	Omnivore
<i>Alcedo atthis</i>	Alcedinidae	Carnivore	<i>Galerida cristata</i>	Alaudidae	Insectivore
<i>Amauromes phoenicurus</i>	Rallidae	Omnivore	<i>Gallix rex cinerea</i>	Rallidae	Omnivore
<i>Ammomanes phoenicurus</i>	Alaudidae	Insectivore	<i>Gallinula chloropus</i>	Rallidae	Omnivore
<i>Anas platyrhynchos</i>	Anatidae	Omnivore	<i>Gelochelidon nilotica</i>	Sternidae	Carnivore
<i>Anas poecilorhyncha</i>	Anatidae	Granivore	<i>Gracupica contra</i>	Sturnidae	Omnivore
<i>Anas querquedula</i>	Anatidae	Carnivore	<i>Halcyon smymensis</i>	Halcyonidae	Carnivore
<i>Anas strepera</i>	Anatidae	Granivore	<i>Haliastur indus</i>	Accipitridae	Omnivore
<i>Anastomus oscitans</i>	Ciconiidae	Carnivore	<i>Hierococcyx varius</i>	Cuculidae	Carnivore
<i>Anthus richardi</i>	Motacillidae	Insectivore	<i>Himantopus himantopus</i>	Recurvirostridae	Carnivore
<i>Anthus rufulus</i>	Motacillidae	Insectivore	<i>Hirundo rustica</i>	Hirundinidae	Insectivore
<i>Apus nipalensis</i>	Apodidae	Insectivore	<i>Hydrophasianus chirurgus</i>	Jacaniidae	Omnivore
<i>Egretta alba</i>	Ardeidae	Carnivore	<i>Ixobrychus cinnamomeus</i>	Ardeidae	Carnivore
<i>Ardea cinerea</i>	Ardeidae	Carnivore	<i>Lanius cristatus</i>	Lanidae	Insectivore
<i>Ardea purpurea</i>	Ardeidae	Carnivore	<i>Leptocoma zeylonica</i>	Nectariniidae	Nectarivore
<i>Ardeola grayii</i>	Ardeidae	Carnivore	<i>Lonchura atricapilla</i>	Estrildidae	Granivore
<i>Artamus fuscus</i>	Artamidae	Insectivore	<i>Lonchura punctulata</i>	Estrildidae	Granivore
<i>Athene brama</i>	Strigidae	Carnivore	<i>Lonchura striata</i>	Estrildidae	Granivore
<i>Bubulcus coromandus</i>	Ardeidae	Carnivore	<i>Megalaima haemacephala</i>	Megalaimidae	Omnivore
<i>Butorides striata</i>	Ardeidae	Carnivore	<i>Megalurus palustris</i>	Locustellidae	Insectivore
<i>Calandrella brachydactyla</i>	Alaudidae	Insectivore	<i>Merops leschenaulti</i>	Meropidae	Insectivore
<i>Caprimulgus asiaticus</i>	Caprimulgidae	Insectivore	<i>Merops orientalis</i>	Meropidae	Insectivore
<i>Hirundo daurica</i>	Hirundinidae	Insectivore	<i>Merops philippinus</i>	Meropidae	Insectivore
<i>Centropus bengalensis</i>	Cuculidae	Omnivore	<i>Egretta intermedia</i>	Ardeidae	Carnivore
<i>Centropus sinensis</i>	Cuculidae	Carnivore	<i>Metopidius indicus</i>	Jacaniidae	Carnivore
<i>Ceryle rudis</i>	Ceryiidae	Carnivore	<i>Milvus migrans</i>	Accipitridae	Omnivore
<i>Charadrius dubius</i>	Charadriidae	Carnivore	<i>Mirafra affinis</i>	Alaudidae	Insectivore
<i>Ciconia episcopus</i>	Ciconiidae	Carnivore	<i>Mirafra cantillans</i>	Alaudidae	Insectivore
<i>Cinnyris asiaticus</i>	Nectariniidae	Nectarivore	<i>Mirafra erythroptera</i>	Alaudidae	Insectivore
<i>Circus macrourus</i>	Accipitridae	Carnivore	<i>Motacilla cinerea</i>	Motacillidae	Carnivore
<i>Cisticola juncidis</i>	Cisticolidae	Insectivore	<i>Motacilla madaraspatensis</i>	Motacillidae	Insectivore
<i>Clamator jacobinus</i>	Cuculidae	Omnivore	<i>Muscicapa dauurica</i>	Muscicapidae	Insectivore
<i>Columba livia</i>	Columbidae	Omnivore	<i>Mycteria leucocephala</i>	Ciconiidae	Carnivore
<i>Copsychus saularis</i>	Muscicapidae	Omnivore	<i>Cinnyris lolanius</i>	Nectariniidae	Nectarivore
<i>Coracias benghalensis</i>	Coraciidae	Omnivore	<i>Nycticorax nycticorax</i>	Ardeidae	Carnivore
<i>Coracina melanoptera</i>	Campephagidae	Insectivore	<i>Oriolus oriolus</i>	Oriolidae	Omnivore
<i>Corvus macrorhynchos</i>	Corvidae	Omnivore	<i>Orthotomus sutorius</i>	Cisticolidae	Insectivore
<i>Corvus splendens</i>	Corvidae	Omnivore	<i>Passer domesticus</i>	Passeridae	Granivore
<i>Cuculus micropterus</i>	Cuculidae	Omnivore	<i>Pavo cristatus</i>	Phasianidae	Omnivore
<i>Cypsiurus balaisiensis</i>	Apodidae	Insectivore	<i>Pericrocotus cinnamomeus</i>	Campephagidae	Insectivore
<i>Dendrocitta vagabunda</i>	Corvidae	Omnivore	<i>Phalacrocorax carbo</i>	Phalacrocoracidae	Carnivore
<i>Dendrocoryna javanica</i>	Cuculidae	Granivore	<i>Phalacrocorax fuscicollis</i>	Phalacrocoracidae	Carnivore
<i>Dicaeum agile</i>	Dicaeidae	Nectarivore	<i>Phalacrocorax niger</i>	Phalacrocoracidae	Carnivore
<i>Dicaeum erythrorhynchos</i>	Dicaeidae	Nectarivore	<i>Phylloscopus affinis</i>	Phylloscopidae	Insectivore
<i>Dicaeum minullum</i>	Dicaeidae	Nectarivore	<i>Phylloscopus fuscatus</i>	Phylloscopidae	Insectivore
<i>Dicrurus aeneus</i>	Dicruridae	Omnivore	<i>Phylloscopus trochiloides</i>	Phylloscopidae	Insectivore
<i>Dicrurus caeruleus</i>	Dicruridae	Insectivore	<i>Plegadis falcinellus</i>	Threskiornithidae	Carnivore
<i>Dicrurus macrocercus</i>	Dicruridae	Omnivore	<i>Ploceus philippinus</i>	Ploceidae	Omnivore
<i>Dinopium benghalense</i>	Picidae	Omnivore	<i>Porphyrio porphyrio</i>	Rallidae	Carnivore

FUNCTIONAL ASSEMBLAGES OF BIRDS IN HETEROGENEOUS LANDSCAPES

Table 2: List of bird species recorded based on their foraging guild (*contd.*)

Species	Family	Foraging Guild	Species	Family	Foraging Guild
<i>Porzana fusca</i>	Rallidae	Omnivore	<i>Temenuchus pagodarum</i>	Sturnidae	Omnivore
<i>Prinia inornata</i>	Cisticolidae	Insectivore	<i>Sturnus roseus</i>	Sturnidae	Omnivore
<i>Prinia socialis</i>	Cisticolidae	Insectivore	<i>Sumiculus lugubris</i>	Cuculidae	Omnivore
<i>Psittacula krameri</i>	Psittacidae	Frugivore	<i>Tachybaptus ruficollis</i>	Podicipedidae	Carnivore
<i>Pycnonotus cafer</i>	Pycnonotidae	Omnivore	<i>Tephrodornis pondicerianus</i>	Prionopidae	Insectivore
<i>Pycnonotus luteolus</i>	Pycnonotidae	Omnivore	<i>Terpsiphone paradisi</i>	Monarchidae	Insectivore
<i>Recurvirostra avosetta</i>	Recurvirostridae	Carnivore	<i>Tringa stagnatilis</i>	Scolopacidae	Insectivore
<i>Saxicola caprata</i>	Muscicapidae	Insectivore	<i>Turdoides affinis</i>	Timalidae	Omnivore
<i>Saxicoloides fulcatus</i>	Muscicapidae	Omnivore	<i>Tyto alba</i>	Tytonidae	Carnivore
<i>Streptopelia chinensis</i>	Columbidae	Omnivore	<i>Upupa epops</i>	Upupidae	Omnivore
<i>Sterna hirundo</i>	Sternidae	Carnivore	<i>Vanellus indicus</i>	Charadriidae	Carnivore
<i>Streptopelia senegalensis</i>	Columbidae	Omnivore	<i>Vanellus malabaricus</i>	Charadriidae	Carnivore
<i>Streptopelia decaocto</i>	Columbidae	Granivore	<i>Zoothera citrina</i>	Turdidae	Omnivore
<i>Streptopelia orientalis</i>	Columbidae	Omnivore			

for *Prinia socialis*, *Phylloscopus trochiloides*, *P. affinis*, *Orthotomus sutorius* and *Streptopelia chinensis*.

Along the urban matrix, species concentrate more in the urban fringe as it provides a unique corridor and varied landscapes for different species of birds. Among urban birds, the House Sparrow *Passer domesticus* was the most effected by urbanisation. House Sparrow populations were recorded in 12 urban (Fig. 4), 4 suburban and 20 rural locations. The highest population of House Sparrow was recorded in the suburban regions of Tiruchirappalli, in and around areas of

Panjapur along the Madurai bypass. Along the gradient, House Sparrows were mostly seen associated with houses with tiled and thatched roofs, in and around rice mills and agricultural landscapes. The mean population of House Sparrow recorded was urban 9, suburban 114, and rural 36.

DISCUSSION

The results show significant difference in the diversity indexes of species occupying the urban-rural gradient. This

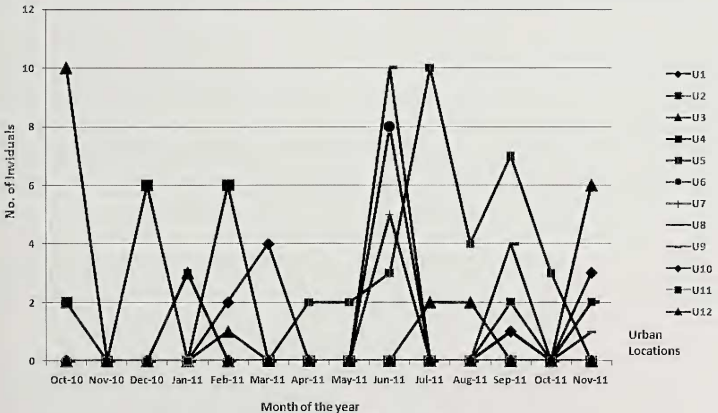


Fig. 5: House Sparrows inhabiting 12 selected locations within the urban landscape





Fig. 6: Nesting of House Sparrows in holes in walls of highway flyovers

can be attributed to the varied landscapes and land use patterns available to birds including agriculture fields, wetlands, wastelands, and plantations. Though diversity is less in urban areas, the abundance of species occupying the urban matrix is higher and increases with urbanisation and is in accordance with other studies (Beissinger and Osborne 1982; Chace and Walsh 2006; Clergeau *et al.* 1998; Emlen 1974; Shochat 2004). Omnivorous species show higher abundance in the urban matrix, leaving less resources to birds from other foraging guilds. Diversity reached a peak at moderate levels of urbanisation and this was revealed in other studies (Blair 1996; 2001; Crooks *et al.* 2004; Jokimäki and Suhonen 1993). But, there was no significant difference in niche breadth of birds occupying different landscapes along an urban-rural gradient, as species tend to exploit a wider area based on resource availability in the urban, suburban, and rural regions. Higher abundance of omnivorous species in urban settings can be correlated to the abundant resources and less predation in the urban matrix, which is supported by several studies (Beissinger and Osborne 1982; Chace and Walsh 2006; Emlen 1974; Kluza *et al.* 2000; Lancaster and Rees 1979; Mills *et al.* 1989). Species

diversity in the urban landscape is significantly composed by the edge species like Black Drongo, Indian Roller, Indian Pond-Heron, Great Egret, Little Egret, Eastern Cattle-Egret, Indian Bush Lark that occupy the urban fringes. This study proves that urbanisation has a negative impact on species richness, and is supported by other studies by Stratford and Robinson (2005).

Among the common urban birds, *Passer domesticus* is the most affected, with only a few individuals inhabiting select locations within the city. Their decline can be attributed to loss of food due to modernised granaries, decline of insect prey and most importantly loss of nesting sites. Although decline is noticed overall in the study area, a few sparrow friendly habitats occur along the urban fringes and rural matrix, particularly in the proximity of rice mills, thatched huts, and more interestingly in drainage holes of highway flyovers in the district (Figs 5 & 6). In the district, the highest population of *Passer domesticus* was recorded along the Madurai bypass (Panjapur) and can be attributed to large scale cultivation of paddy and rice mills in the area. Large scale habitat alteration due to changing land use patterns as a result of urbanisation and waning paddy cultivation the world over is a cause of concern for declining House Sparrow populations.

## CONCLUSION

In Tiruchirappalli, bird species diversity increases from more to less urbanised centres (Clergeau *et al.* 1998; McKinney 2002). Though urban landscapes are less species diverse, they too play a crucial role in conserving biodiversity as they are 'Species Abundant Zones'. City planners and urban foresters should incorporate the concept of 'Urban Bird Reserve' along urban fringes into urban landscape planning. Protecting the green cover, conserving water bodies, preserving dead trees, constructing ecofriendly architecture, and well-designed urban landscaping will help in protecting and reversing the decline of urban bird species.

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

The first author thanks the Department of Science and Technology, Government of India, for providing funds and assistance to carry out the project under the Women Scientists Scheme.

## REFERENCES

- ARNOLD, C.L. & C. GIBBONS (1996): Impervious surface coverage: The emergence of a key environmental indicator. *Journal of the American Planning Association* 62(2): 243-258.
- BEISSINGER, S.R. & D.R. OSBORNE (1982): Effects of urbanization on avian community organization. *Condor* 84: 75-83.
- BIBBY, C.J., N.D. BURGESS, D.A. HALL & S. MUSTOE (2000): *Bird Census Techniques*. 2nd edn. Academic Press, London. Pp. 325.
- BLAIR, R.B. (1996): Land use and avian species diversity along an urban gradient. *Ecol. Appl.* 6: 506-519.
- BLAIR, R.B. (2001): Birds and butterflies along urban gradients in two

- ecoregions of the United States: is urbanization creating a homogeneous fauna? Pp. 33-56. In: Lockwood, J.L. & M.L. McKinney (Eds): *Biotic Homogenization: The Loss of Diversity through Invasion and Extinction*. Kluwer Academic Publishers, Boston, MA.
- BLAIR, R.B. (2004): The effects of urban sprawl on birds at multiple levels of biological organization. *Ecol Soc* 9(2): <http://www.ecologyandsociety.org/vol9/iss5/art2>.
- BRAY, J.R. & J.T. CURTIS (1957): An ordination of the upland forest communities of Southern Wisconsin. *Ecol. Monographs* 27: 325-349.
- BROTOS, L. & S. HERRANDO (2001): Reduced bird occurrence in pine forest fragments associated with road proximity in a Mediterranean agricultural area. *Landscape and Urban Planning* 57: 77-89.
- CHACE, J.F. & J.J. WALSH (2006): Urban effects on native avifauna: a review. *Landscape and Urban Planning* 74: 46-69.
- CLERGEAU, P., J.P.L. SAVARD, G. MENNECHEZ & G. FALARDEAU (1998): Bird abundance and diversity along an urban-rural gradient: a comparative study between two cities on different continents. *Condor* 100: 413-425.
- CROOKS, K.R., A.V. SUAREZ & D.T. BOLGER (2004): Avian assemblages along a gradient of urbanization in a highly fragmented landscape. *Biological Conservation* 115: 451-462.
- EMLEN, J.T. (1974): An urban bird community in Tucson, Arizona: derivation, structure, regulation. *Condor* 76: 184-197.
- FRATERRIGO, J.M. & J.A. WIENS (2005): Bird communities of the Colorado Rocky Mountains along a gradient of exurban development. *Landscape and Urban Planning* 71: 263-275.
- FRIESEN, L.E., P.F.J. EAGLES & R.J. MACKAY (1995): Effects of residential development on forest-dwelling neotropical migrant songbirds. *Conservation Biology* 9: 1408-1414.
- GLENNON, M.J. & W.F. PORTER (2005): Effects of land use management on biotic integrity: an investigation of bird communities. *Biological Conservation* 126: 499-511.
- GRIMM, N.B., J.M. GROVE, S.T.A. PICKETT & C.L. REDMAN (2000): Integrated approaches to long-term studies of urban ecological systems. *BioScience* 50: 571-584.
- JACKSON, J.A. (2006): Ivory-billed woodpecker (*Campyphilus principalis*): hope, and the interfaces of science, conservation, and politics. *Auk* 123: 1-15.
- JOKIMÄKI, J. & J. SUBJONEN (1993): Effects of urbanization on the breeding bird species richness in Finland: a biogeographical comparison. *Ornis Fenn* 70: 71-77.
- KLUZA, D.A., C.R. GRIFFIN & R.M. DEGRAAF (2000): Housing developments in rural New England: effects on forest birds. *Animal Conservation* 3: 15-26.
- LANCASTER, R.K. & W.E. REES (1979): Bird communities and the structure of urban habitats. *Canadian Journal of Zoology* 57: 2358-2368.
- MACHLIS, G.E., J.E. FORCE & W.R. BURCH JR. (1997): The Human Ecosystem, Part I: The human ecosystem as an organizing concept in ecosystem management. *Society and Natural Resources* 10: 347-368.
- MAGURRAN, A.E. (2004): *Measuring Biological Diversity*. Blackwell. Pp. 260.
- MCKINNEY, M.L. (2002): Urbanization, biodiversity, and conservation. *BioScience* 52: 883-890.
- MCKINNEY, M.L. (2006): Urbanization as a major cause of biotic homogenization. *Biological Conservation* 127: 247-260.
- MCKINNEY, M.L. & J.L. LOCKWOOD (1999): Biotic homogenization: a few winners replacing many losers in the next mass extinction. *Trends Ecol. Evol.* 14: 450-453.
- MILLER, J.R. & R.J. HOBBS (2002): Conservation where people live and work. *Conservation Biology* 16(2): 330-337.
- MILLS, G.S., J.B. DUNNING JR. & J.M. BATES (1989): Effects of urbanization on breeding bird community structure in southwestern desert habitats. *Condor* 91: 416-428.
- MORIN, P.J. (1999): *Community Ecology*. Oxford University Press, Oxford, UK. Pp. 424.
- OLDEN, J.D. (2006): Biotic homogenization: a new research agenda for conservation biogeography. *J. Biogeogr.* 33(12): 2027-2039.
- PACZYNA, J.M. & E.G. PACZYNA (2001): An assessment of global and regional emissions of trace metals to the atmosphere from anthropogenic sources *Worldwide Environmental Review* 9: 269-298.
- PALOMINO, D. & L.M. CARRASCAL (2006): Urban influence on birds at a regional scale: A case study with the avifauna of northern Madrid province. *Landscape and Urban Planning* 77: 276-290.
- PRENTICE, I.C. (2001): The carbon cycle and atmospheric carbon dioxide. Pp. 185-237. In: Houghton, J. & D. Yihui (Eds): *Climate Change 2001: The Scientific Basis*. Cambridge University Press, New York.
- SHOCHAT, E. (2004): Credit or debit? Resource input changes population dynamics of city-slicker birds. *Oikos* 106: 622-626.
- STRATFORD, J.A. & W.D. ROBINSON (2005): Distribution of neotropical migratory bird species across an urbanizing landscape. *Urban Ecosystem* 8: 59-77.
- TRATALOS, J., R.A. FULLER, K.L. EVANS, R.G. DAVIES, S.E. NEWSON, J.J.D. GREENWOOD & K.J. GASTON (2007): Bird densities are associated with household densities. *Glob. Change Biol.* 13: 1685-1695.
- TURNER, B.L., W.C. CLARK, R.W. KATES, J.F. RICHARDS, J.T. MATHEWS & W.B. MEYER (1991): *The Earth as Transformed by Human Action: Global and Regional Changes in the Biosphere over the Past 300 Years*. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, UK.
- VITOUSEK, P.M., H.A. MOONEY, J. LUBCHENKO & J.M. MELILLO (1997): Human domination of Earth's ecosystems. *Science* 277: 494-499.

